

**CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE
SUMMERVILLE TRACT,
BERKELEY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**



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CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 355

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE SUMMERVILLE TRACT, BERKELEY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 278.7 acre tract in the western portion of Berkeley County, near the town of Summerville, South Carolina. The work, conducted for Mr. Walt Martin of Centex Homes, is meant to assist Centex Homes in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract is proposed to be used by Centex Homes for the construction of a subdivision of single family homes, town homes, and multi-family housing. The survey area is situated to the west of I-26 and is a new development, but borders a current subdivision to the west, which also marks the Berkeley/Dorchester County Line. Several roads extend through the tract making access easy.

This survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project domain. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 1.0 mile around the proposed tract was assumed. The proposed undertaking will require clearing, grubbing, grading, and filling in of wetlands along with the construction of both underground utilities as well as above ground structures. There will likely be short-term construction impacts, including increased noise and dust levels, and increased construction related traffic. The long-term affects will primarily be an increase of traffic from the new residents.

A Dorchester county architectural survey from 1996 shows nine historic structures (496-0253.00, 496-0253.01, 496-0253.02, 496-0268, 496-0561, 496-0251, 496-0252, 496-0269, and 496-0194) within the APE of the proposed undertaking (Davis and Fick 1997). Only one of these sites, 496-0561, the Dorchester County Hospital, ca. 1937, has been determined eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. All the other properties have been determined not eligible for the National Register. Only one property was found within the portion of the APE in Berkeley County, 496-0001, which

has been determined not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places (Schneider 1989).

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified no sites within the project area, but identified one site, 38DR144 within the 1.0 mile APE. This site represents a nineteenth to twentieth century scatter of materials. A low density of artifacts were found, so the site was recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects laid out at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. In the wetland areas, no shovel tests were performed, but a pedestrian survey was still completed. A total of 1,221 shovel tests were excavated along 78 transect lines.

As a result of these investigations, no archaeological sites were uncovered. This failure to encounter prehistoric remains is likely the result of low, poorly drained soils. The absence of historic sites is probably related to the settlement patterns in the area and the tract's distance from either major roads or waterways. In addition, we found the tract to be heavily impacted by logging and this may have obliterated smaller or less dense resources.

A survey of public roads within a mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. No such sites, other than those recorded by Schneider (1989) and Davis and Fick (1997), were found. The one eligible site, 496-0561, is beyond any physical impact of the proposed tract, and is currently affected by modern subdivisions and urban sprawl. It is our opinion that The Dorchester County Hospital will not be affected by

the present undertaking.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures		iv
Introduction		1
Natural Environment		5
<i>Physiography</i>	5	
<i>Geology and Soils</i>	5	
<i>Climate</i>	6	
<i>Floristics</i>	7	
Prehistoric and Historic Background		9
<i>Previous Research</i>	9	
<i>Prehistoric Overview</i>	9	
<i>Historic Overview</i>	15	
<i>Tract Specific History</i>	18	
Research Methods and Findings		23
<i>Archaeological Field Methods and Findings</i>	23	
<i>Architectural Survey and Findings</i>	25	
Conclusions		27
Sources Cited		29

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1. Project vicinity in Berkeley County	2
2. Project tract and previously identified sites	3
3. View of planted pines on the survey tract	5
4. View of mixed pines and hardwoods	6
5. View of dense undergrowth	7
6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina	10
7. Portion Mills' <i>Atlas</i> showing the project area	17
8. Portion of the 1920 Summerville War Department Topographic Map	18
9. 1926 Plat of Sasportas, Burbage, R. M. Anderson, and T. H. Allen Tracts	19
10. 1953 Plat showing land acquired from E. T. Salisbury	20
11. 1951 <i>General Highway and Transportation Map of Berkeley County</i>	21
12. View of recent logging activities on the survey tract	23
13. Survey area with transects	24
14. View of crossroads on the survey tract	25

INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Walt Martin of Centex Homes. The work was conducted to assist Centex Homes in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of approximately 278.7 acres of land proposed to be used for a subdivision of single family homes, town homes, and multi-family homes located in western Berkeley County northeast of the town of Summerville (Figure 1). About 38.5 acres of wetland exists on the tract, although much was dry at the time of the survey.

The tract, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used primarily for a subdivision of single family homes, town homes, and multi-family homes. This will entail the construction of infrastructure, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities, as well as the construction of residences. Combined, these activities will include clearing of timber, grubbing, grading, and excavations — all activities which may cause significant damage to any archaeological resources present.

There will also be some short-term construction related affects, such as increased noise, construction traffic and increased dust levels. There will be a need for erosion control and there may be some need for wetland fill permits.

There are no considerations of long-term secondary affects, such as increased traffic, changes in property values, or additional development spurred by this undertaking. We should point out, however, that the area is currently under the effects of urban and suburban Summerville. A subdivision is located to the west of the tract and many hotels and shopping centers are located within 0.5 mile of the area. The 1.0 mile APE maintains no rural character and the

historic resources present exist in an isolated context.

We were requested by Mr. Walt Martin of Centex Homes to provide a proposal for the survey in April 2002. The proposal was accepted and subsequent background investigations began shortly thereafter.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, one site, 38DR144, was uncovered. This site represents a low density scatter of nineteenth and twentieth century artifacts and has been recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. A comprehensive architectural survey was performed in 1989 for Berkeley County (Schneider 1989) and in 1997 for Dorchester County (Davis and Fick 1997) so the SHPO files are considered complete and well documented for the study area.

As discussed in greater detail elsewhere, there are no previously identified architectural sites on the study tract. Nine of the previously identified sites within Dorchester County have all been determined by the SHPO as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register and the one Berkeley County site has also been determined not eligible. There is one site that has been determined eligible for the National Register in the ca. 1937 area, the Dorchester County Hospital. Although this structure is located about 0.75 mile from the proposed tract, it is unlikely that this project will affect the structure beyond the current urban and suburban development of the area.

Archival and historical research

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE SUMMERVILLE TRACT

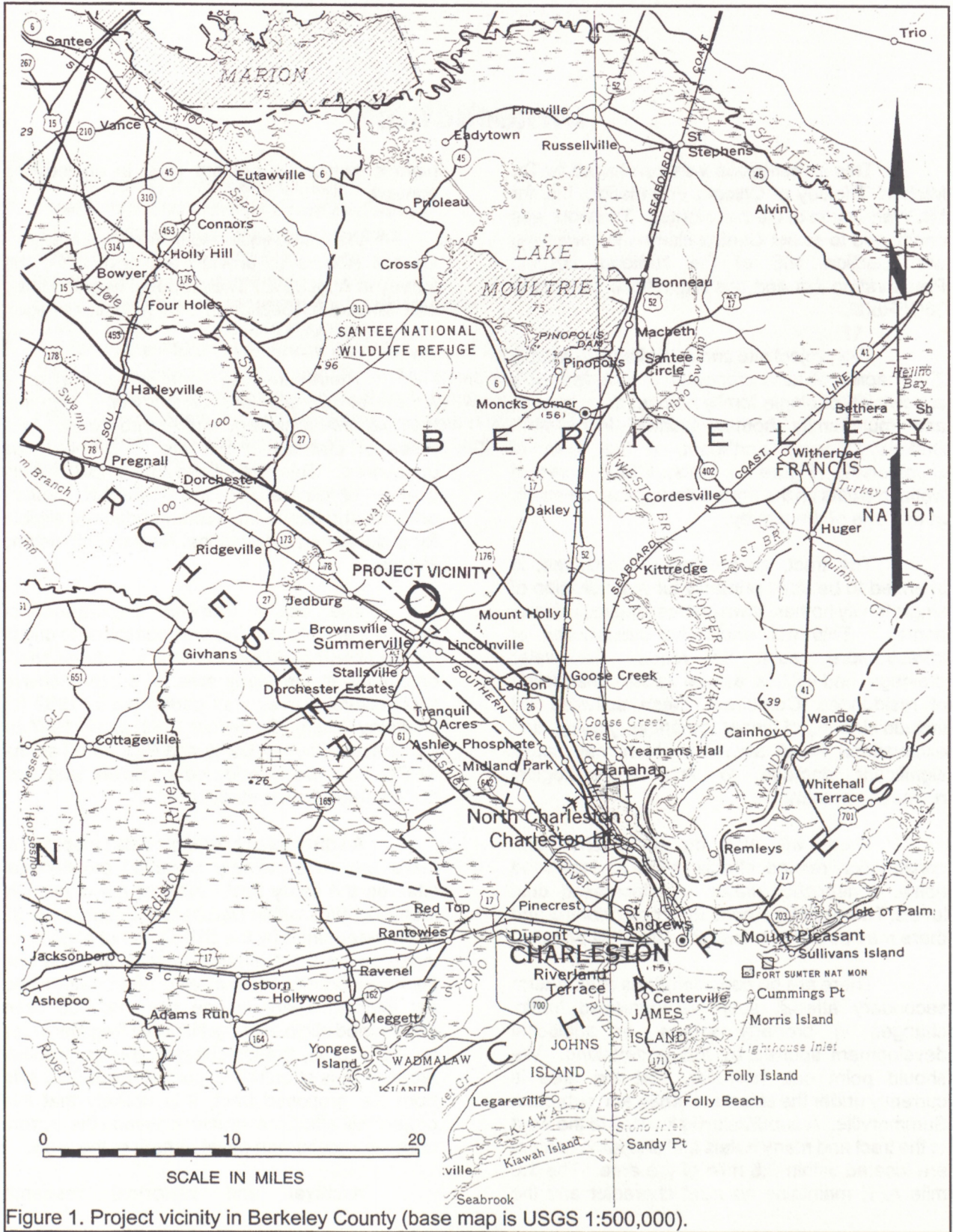
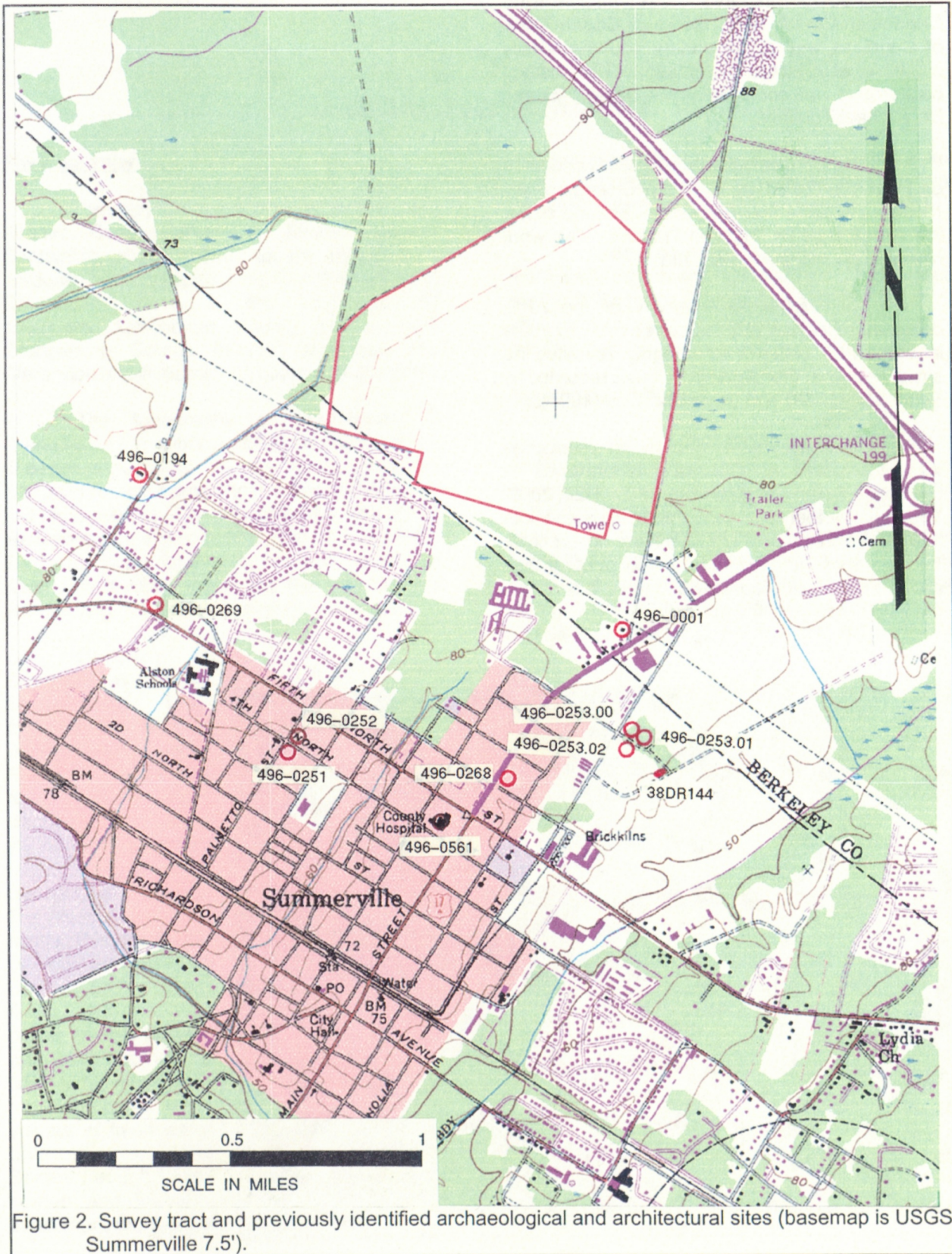


Figure 1. Project vicinity in Berkeley County (base map is USGS 1:500,000).



incorporated both primary sources available at the Charleston County RMC, Berkeley County Clerk of Court, as well as secondary sources readily available at Chicora Foundation. The historic background was compiled by Ms. Sarah Fick and Dr. Michael Trinkley.

The archaeological survey was conducted on from May 20-31 by Mr. Tom Covington, Mr. Richard Hill and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. The work revealed no archaeological sites.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age which retain their integrity revealed no structures other than those previously recorded by Schneider (1989) and Davis and Fick (1997).

Laboratory work and report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from June 21-24, 2002. The only photographic materials associated with this project are color prints, which are not archival. The negatives and prints for these photographs are retained by Chicora Foundation, along with the field notes from the project.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Berkeley County is situated in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina. Containing about 1,100 square miles, it is bordered by Georgetown County to the northeast, Charleston County to the southeast and southwest, Dorchester County to the west, Orangeburg County to the northwest, and Clarendon and Williamsburg counties to the north.

The topography of the county is characterized by subtle undulations characteristic of beach ridge plains. The elevations range from sea level to approximately 105 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). The project tract is situated on elevations ranging from 10 feet to 30 feet AMSL. The area is predominately covered by swamp which stays fairly level, but the upland area surrounding the swamp is slightly undulating.

Berkeley is drained by three significant river systems: the Santee, Wando, and Cooper Rivers. The Santee has a large freshwater discharge and forms the northern boundary with neighboring Georgetown County. The Wando is a coastal river and is dominated by tidal action. The Cooper River, which flows through the center of the County, was also originally a tidal river, but has been modified by a large volume of fresh water diverted from the Santee through Lakes Marion and Moultrie. In addition, there are a

number of broad, low gradient interior drainages that are present either as extensions of tidal streams or flooded bays and swales (Long 1980).

There are approximately 17,500 acres of freshwater marsh and 4,300 acres of impounded marsh in Berkeley County (Long 1980). Much of this acreage was related to the production of upland rice.

Geology and Soils

As previously mentioned, Berkeley County is made up of one broad physiographic area, often called the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain or the Atlantic Coast Flatwoods (Long 1980). The surface soils are almost entirely sedimentary and were transported into the area from other places. The geology of Berkeley County is characteristic of the region with the sands, clays, gravels, and phosphates covering the surface dating to the



Figure 3. View of planted pines located on the survey tract.



Figure 4. View of mixed pines and hardwoods on survey tract.

Pleistocene (Long 1980).

There are five soils found within the survey area. The most dominate soil, Pantego fine sandy loam, is found in over 80% of the study tract and has a black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam surface layer to a depth of 1.2 feet over a gray (10YR5/1) fine sandy loam which occurs to 1.7 feet. Also found within large areas of the survey tract is the Rains series of soils which have a layer of black (N2/0) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a gray (10YR5/1) fine sandy loam to 1.0 foot in depth.

Goldsboro soils, Ocilla soils, and Lynchburg soils are found as small areas on the survey tract. The Goldsboro series has a layer of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy sand to a depth of 0.6 foot over a light yellowish brown (2.5Y6/4) loamy sand to 1.2 feet in depth. Ocilla soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sandy to a depth of 0.6 foot over a pale brown (10YR6/3) loamy fine sandy to 1.0 foot in depth. The Lynchburg soils have a surface layer of black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.3 foot over a light yellowish brown (2.5YR6/4) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.6 foot.

While Pantego soils and Rains soils cover most of the survey area, they are very poorly drained soils which make habitation in the area unlikely. The other three soils, Goldsboro, Ocilla, and Lynchburg, range from moderately well drained to somewhat poorly drained soils, but these areas do not appear large enough to sustain any type of settlement.

Climate

Berkeley County has a subtropical climate, characterized by warm summers, mild winters, and adequate precipitation fairly evenly spread throughout the year. Except in the summer, when maritime tropical air controls the climate of the area, the daily weather patterns are controlled by west to east moving pressure systems and associated fronts.

Yearly precipitation averages 47 inches, but ranges from 39 to 55 inches (Long 1980). The growing season, from April to September, receives an average of 31 inches or about 66% of the yearly total. The average length of the freeze-free growing season is approximately 260 days, although frosts can occur as early as October 26 and as late as April 15 (Long 1980).

Mills remarked in 1826 that Carolina was similar to European climates, lying at a similar latitude. He noted that,

in comparing the climate of South Carolina, with similar climates in Europe, we find it lying under the same atmospheric influences with Aix, Rochelle, Montpelier, Lyons, Bordeaux, and other parts of France; with Milan, Turin, Padua, Mantua, and other parts

of Italy (Mills 1972 [1826]).

The coastal region is a moderately high risk zone for tropical storms, with 169 hurricanes being documented from 1686 to 1972 (0.59 per year) (Mathews et al. 1980). One of the most devastating in the eighteenth century was the hurricane of September 15, 1752. One report listed 92 people drowned, although the death toll, especially among the African American slaves was likely much higher. The storm also had considerable long-term effects. Calhoun notes,

the destruction of trees was severe; one plantation owner's loss was assessed at \$50,000 and many of those trees which survived were "heart-shaken," and unfit for use. Crops were even more damaged as the storm followed a severe drought. It was necessary to enact laws to regulate the exportation and sale of corn, "Peafe," and small rice, so that "the poor may be able to purchase Provisions at a moderate Price" (Calhoun 1983).

Floristics

Speaking of the coastal plain Braun observed that,

the vegetation of this region is in part warm temperate-subtropical, in part distinctively coastal plain, and in part temperate deciduous. It is made up of widely different forest communities – coniferous, mixed coniferous and hardwood, deciduous hardwood, and mixed deciduous and broad-leaved evergreen hardwood – interrupted here and there by swamps, bogs, and prairies. The large number of unlike communities is related to the diverse environmental conditions of the region (Braun 1974).

Indeed, an examination of the region around Berkeley County reveals tremendous diversity. One detailed study revealed a mosaic including the oak-hickory-pine forest common to upland areas, oak-gum-bald cypress forest typical of the southern floodplains, pine forests found in mesic to xeric upland sites, mesophytic broadleaved forests on more mesic slope sites, old rice fields, and a variety of swamp forests such as the tupelo-cypress, low hardwood, and ridge hardwoods (Federal Power Commission 1977). All of these forest types have different dominants and different understory vegetation (see Barry 1980).



Figure 5. View of dense undergrowth located within the tract.

The current

survey area has only a couple different forest types. The most common is a planted pine forest which has been logged for over a century (Figure 3). Also found in the area are small portions of mixed pine and hardwoods (Figure 4) with some areas of a second growth of scrub vegetation and dense undergrowth (Figure 5). Although several areas of wetland had been surveyed along the tract, the areas remained dry for much of the survey.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

Berkeley County has received a significant amount of archaeological attention. The Summerville area has received some attention with works for the Wastewater Facilities (Brooks and Harmon 1981), road extension and widening projects (Harvey 2001), and developments (Campo 1999).

Prehistoric Overview

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.¹ Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not

universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie (1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by

¹ While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE SUMMERVILLE TRACT

			Regional Phases		
Dates	Period	Sub-Period	COASTAL	MIDDLE SAVANNAH VALLEY	CENTRAL CAROLINA PIEDMONT
1715	HIST.	EARLY	Altamaha		Caraway
1650	MISS.	LATE	Irene / Pee Dee	Rembert	Dan River
1100		EARLY	Savannah	Hollywood	
	WOODLAND			Lawton	Pee Dee
		LATE	St. Catherines / Swift Creek	Savannah	
800					Uwharrie
A.D.			Wilmington	Sand Tempered Wilmington?	
B.C.		MIDDLE	Deptford	Deptford	Yadkin
300					
		EARLY		Refuge	Badin
1000	ARCHAIC			Thom's Creek Stallings	
2000		LATE		Savannah River Halifax	
3000					
		MIDDLE		Guilford Morrow Mountain Stanly	
5000					
8000		EARLY		Kirk Palmer	
10,000	PALEOINDIAN			Hardaway	
				Hardaway - Dalton	
12,000			Cumberland	Clovis	Simpson

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the

Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.², does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the

previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily

² The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

on the size of the blade and the stem. Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the sheer distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site

(38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed,

perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from

Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been

reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.³ This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the

³ The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historic Overview

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were brought to the New World for reasons other than the acquisitions of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth.

By 1680 the settlers of Albermarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper Rivers. This new settlement at Oyster Point would become modern-day Charleston. The move provided not only a more healthful climate and an area of better defense, but

the situation of this Town is so convenient for public Commerce that it rather seems to be the design of some skillful Artist than the accidental position of nature (Mathews 1954).

The early settlers of the Carolina colony came from other mainland colonies, England, and the European continent. But the future of Carolina was largely directed by the large number of colonists from the English West Indies. This Caribbean connection has been discussed by Waterhouse (1975), who argues that the Caribbean immigrants were largely from old families of economic and political prominence which formed the Barbados elite. Waterhouse observes that while elsewhere in the American

colonies the early settled families were displaced from their established positions of power and economic superiority by newcomers, this did not occur in South Carolina. In Carolina,

a relatively large proportion of those who, in the middle of the eighteenth century, were among the wealthier inhabitants, were descended from those families who had arrived in the colony during the first twenty years of its settlement (Waterhouse 1975).

This immigration turned out to be a significant factor in the stability and longevity of South Carolina's colonial elite. It also firmly established the foundations of slavery and cash crop plantations.

Many of these Barbadian immigrants settled in the Goose Creek area, southeast of the survey tract, forming one of the most influential political and economic groups in the colony (Stoney 1938). The "Goose Creek Men" included individuals such as Maurice Mathews, James Moore and John Boone. They favored increased Indian slavery, trade with the pirates or privateers that sailed the Carolina coast, and generally ignored the efforts of the Lords Proprietors to control the Colony's economic and political future. While the political power of the Goose Creek faction peaked in the 1720s, it continued to evidence considerable economic power well into the late 1740s (see Morgan 1980; Sirmans 1966).

Early agricultural experiments which involved olives, grapes, silkworms, and oranges were less than successful. While the Indian trade was profitable to many of the Carolina colonies, it did not provide the Proprietors with the wealth they were expecting from the new colony. This trade was also limited since the Indian population was so dramatically reduced by European disease, the sale of alcohol, and slavery.

Cattle raising was also an easy way to exploit the region's land and resources, offering a relatively secure return for very little capital investment. Few slaves were necessary to manage the herd. The mild climate of the low country made winter forage more abundant and

winter shelters unnecessary. The salt marshes on the coast, useless for other purposes, provided excellent grazing and eliminated the need to provide salt licks. More interior swamps found similar vegetation and provided a constant water supply (Coon 1972; Dunbar 1961). Production of cattle, hogs, and sheep quickly outstripped local consumption and by the early eighteenth century beef and pork were principal exports of the Colony to the West Indies (Ver Steeg 1975). This allowed the ties between Carolina and the Caribbean to remain strong and provided essential provisions to the large scale, single crop plantations.

Rice and indigo both competed for the attention of Carolina planters. Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the Proprietors with the economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system – slavery.

South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By 1710 slaves were starting to be concentrated on a few, large slave-holding plantations. By the close of the eighteenth century some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). And by the end of the century over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves. With slavery came, to many, unbelievable wealth. Coclanis notes that:

on the eve of the American Revolution, the white population of the low country was by far the richest single group in British North America. With the area's wealth based largely on the expropriation by whites of the golden rice and blue dye produced by black slaves, the Carolina low country had by 1774 reached a level of aggregate wealth greater than that in many parts of the world today. The evolution of Charleston, the center of the low-country

civilization, reflected not only the growing wealth of the area but also its spirit and soul (Coclanis 1989).

Only certain areas of the low country, however, were suitable for rice production. During the early years rice was grown as an upland crop, in small fields adjacent to freshwater streams where water could be easily impounded and applied to the crop. By the early 1700s planters found that upland swamps, such as those in the Goose Creek area, were even better suited for rice, although the soils were quickly exhausted (Meriwether 1940; Sellers 1934). These upland swamps, distinct from well-drained uplands, remained the focus of Carolina rice agriculture during the entire Colonial period.

Hewat, writing in 1779, describes the process of upland swamp rice cultivation:

after the planter has obtained his tract of land, and built a house upon it, he then begins to clear his field of that load of wood with which the land is covered. Having cleared his field, he next surrounds it with a wooded fence, to exclude all hogs, sheep, and cattle from it. This field he plants with rice . . . year after year, until the lands are exhausted, or yield not a crop sufficient to answer his expectations. Then it is forsaken, and a fresh spot of land is cleared and planted, which is also treated in like manner, and in succession forsaken and neglected (Hewat 1836).

This rather simplistic commentary failed to observe the engineering feat that upland swamp rice cultivation really was. Clearing, which alone was a monumental undertaking, was followed by the construction of dams, dikes, and trenches. By one estimate, a 500 acre rice field required 60 miles of dikes and ditches (Gunn 1976). Fields were carefully leveled to ensure that they could be completely covered by water. Rice was planted during two periods – March 10 to April 10 and June 1 to June 10 – avoiding May since vast

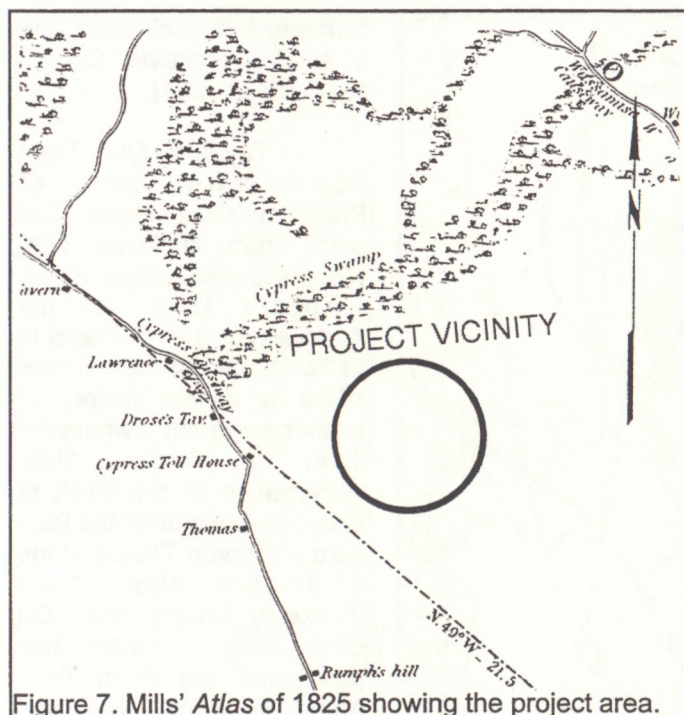


Figure 7. Mills' Atlas of 1825 showing the project area.

migrations of "rice birds" passed through the state during that period and could destroy a crop. Rice was harvested in late August.

By 1730 the majority of the population of the colony, both rural and urban, was black (Wood 1974). By 1850, 46% of Charleston District's population (which included today's Berkeley County) consisted of African-American slaves (DeBow 1854), although Hilliard (1984) indicates that more than 60% of the Charleston slaveholders by 1860 owned fewer than 10 slaves. Regardless, there remained vast plantations where the owner's wealth was achieved by the labor of black slaves.

During the eighteenth century the profits to be gained from rice were extraordinary, ranging from 12% to nearly 28% net return on the investment, well exceeding other cash crops, such as tobacco or indigo (see Coclanis 1989). Charleston was the mecca around which the economic, political, and social world of Carolina revolved. Charleston provided the essential opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism which allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system.

By the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth century, the rate of return on rice had been reduced, at best, to about 2%, and many years the rate of return was a staggering -3% to -7%. In 1859, just before the start of the Civil War, the return is reported to have been -28%. As Coclanis observes:

the economy of the South Carolina low country collapsed in the nineteenth century. Collapse did not come suddenly – many feel, for example, that the area's "golden age" lasted until about 1820 – but come it did nonetheless. By the late nineteenth century it was clear that the forces responsible for the area's earlier dynamism had been routed, the dark victory of economic stagnation virtually complete (Coclanis 1989).

It was the demise of these areas which facilitated the growth of the town of Summerville in 1831, located just south of the survey tract. The town of Summerville was established when the railroad company laid out 300 acres of town lots for sale (Charleston Courier 8/20/1831). Summerville was mainly settled by planters from the area who built houses and summer settlements there.

By 1832, Summerville had grown to the extent that the area was referred to as an "Old Summerville" and a "New Summerville" when the SC Canal and Railroad Company began building a railroad line (Walker 1941). Growth in the general area, prompted the creation of new counties such as Colleton County in 1800 and Dorchester County in 1897.

In 1888 the D. W. Taylor Company owned 25,000 acres, mostly in Berkeley County, and a ten-mile long rail line, the Summerville and St. John's Railroad. Taylor had mills in Summerville and at the upper end of its holdings (Fetters 1990: 31). By 1909 the firm had cut over most of its

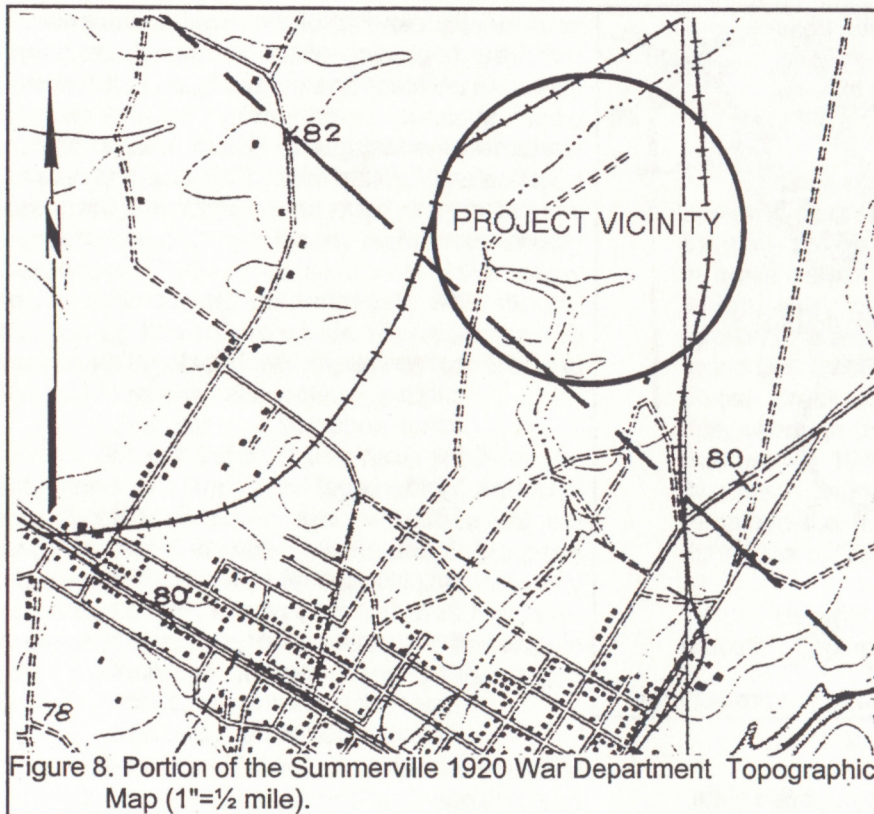


Figure 8. Portion of the Summerville 1920 War Department Topographic Map (1"=1/2 mile).

land, and the rail line was purchased by Prettyman Lumber Company, which began in Summerville by J. Frank Prettyman in 1902. By 1910, Prettyman was cutting 40,000 feet of lumber daily. The railroad eventually extended as far as Cross, where it connected with the Atlantic Coast Line (Fetters 1990: 31-32).

Tract Specific History

This tract and much of the land surrounding it has been owned by and transferred among lumber companies for over a century. In January 1924, John W. Taylor of Summerville conveyed a great deal of property to the Bank of Dorchester for "\$5 plus other consideration" (Berkeley County RMC DB C24:456). The conveyance included lots and buildings in Summerville, among them the Summerville Brick Works property on Gum Street, as well as a 691-acre portion of the Sasportas Tract in Berkeley and Dorchester counties. Both the Sasportas Tract and the 105-acre Burbage Tract to its north had been conveyed by J. F. Prettyman to the

Summerville Brick Company in 1914 (Dorchester County RMC DB 21: 264).

Taylor's Old Tram Road, later part of Prettyman's rail system, runs north from Highway 17A, along the east edges of the Sasportas Tract and the Anderson and Allen Tracts to its north. All of these tracts share a similar history of lumber company ownership. John W. Taylor's 1924 conveyance to the Bank of Dorchester included the 902-acre Anderson Tract and the 81.97-acre Allen Tract (Berkeley County RMC DB C24: 456). Taylor had purchased the Allen Tract from R. H. Allen of Charleston in 1914 (Berkeley County RMC DB A42: 11). The Anderson Tract had been conveyed in 1914 (Berkeley County RMC DB A41: 133) to

the Summerville Brick Company for \$434.71 by Charleston lumberman, Maxwell H. Anderson, who purchased it from Adam W. Taylor in 1905 (Berkeley County RMC DB A22: 57). Taylor had paid the E. P. Burton Lumber \$5 for the land the previous year, having earlier gained title to the 902 acres as part of a larger acquisition from the Sinking Fund Commission in April 1890.

The Bank of Dorchester had a plat made of these four tracts, totaling 1,590 acres, in early 1926 (Berkeley County RMC PB B: 91), and on February 11, 1926, bank president J. A. Guerin sold the combined acreage to William Moultrie Ball of Charleston for \$7,552.50. The plat (Figure 9) shows the Sasportas Tract, 477.75 acres (about 30 acres of it in Dorchester County), Burbage Tract, 105 acres, R. M. Anderson Tract, 902 acres, and the R. H. Allen Tract, 67.91 acres.

Ball sold a 66-acre parcel at the southeast corner of the Sasportas Tract, adjacent to today's US 17A, to the Charleston Heights Company (Berkeley County RMC DB A54: 179). Then, on

19

February 15, 1926, he conveyed the remaining 1524 acres to Pasco Corporation for a total consideration of \$5 (Berkeley County RMC DB A59: 64). The price indicates a relationship between Ball and this company.

Henry H. Ficken, president of Pasco, conveyed the tract in December 1935 to Narva Corporation, an allied firm which already held a mortgage on the property (Berkeley County RMC DB A61: 13). In March 1940, Henry H. Ficken, president of the Narva Corporation, sold most of the land to Evans T. Salisbury of Dorchester County for \$5,022.50 (Berkeley County RMC DB C33: 287). The deed was subject to easements held by the South Carolina Power Company and the State Rural Electrification Authority. Narva retained the land at the south end of the Sasportas Tract, closest to Summerville, conveying to Salisbury a 1,435-acre parcel, partly in Berkeley County and partly in Dorchester, composed of the Anderson Tract and portions of the Burbage and Sasportas Tracts. North of the Anderson Tract was the "Hammond Tract" owned by West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company (formerly held by J. F. Prettyman and Sons) and Allen Tract, which was also being conveyed by Narva to Salisbury.

West Virginia Pulp and Paper had become the dominant timber company in Dorchester County. In 1953 the company acquired 516 acres in Berkeley and Dorchester counties from E. T. Salisbury for \$13,545 (Berkeley County RMC DB C49: 118; PB I:16A) (Figure 10). This 516-acre tract was composed of two parcels, one being a portion of the land Salisbury bought from Narva Corporation in 1940. He had previously conveyed some of that tract to his Salisbury Brick Corporation. There was also a smaller section, 25 acres (20 in Berkeley, 5 in Dorchester), which Salisbury had acquired in 1940 for \$100 from T. W. Salisbury of Summerville, who had purchased it in 1923 from Julia C. Boinest (Berkeley County RMC DB C33: 454).

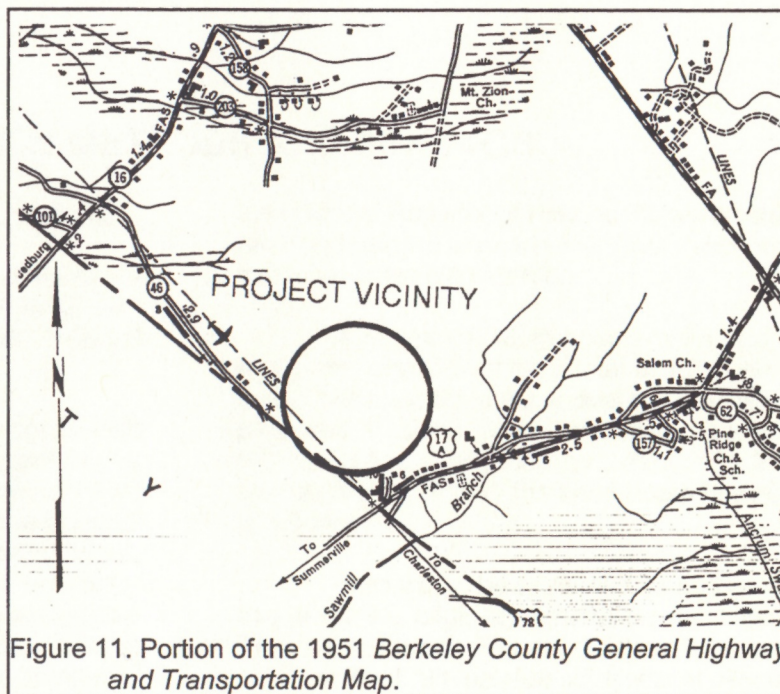


Figure 11. Portion of the 1951 Berkeley County General Highway and Transportation Map.

In 1985, Westvaco conveyed undivided interests in a 366.2-acre tract with improvements, "a portion of the property conveyed in 1953 by Evans T. Salisbury to West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company, which changed its name to Westvaco Corporation in 1969," to three entities: Northwoods Ltd. (50%), A & C Rentals (12%), and Old Tram (37%) (Berkeley County RMC Deed Book A632:178). Two of the parties later deeded their shares to Old Tram, which sold the 345.72 acre tract to Hamer P. Thomas in August 1999 for a consideration of \$2.2 million (Berkeley County RMC DB 1716: 186).

This summary shows that, at least from the late-nineteenth century, the survey parcel has been considered investment real estate. Property lines have been reconfigured many times, but the general use of this and adjacent tracts has remained timber production. None of the available plats show any evidence of structures, settlements, or other cultural remains.



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RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 foot area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators. Sites which appeared to be eligible or potentially eligible for inclusion on

the National Register of Historic Places would be recorded using a Garmin GPS 12XL rover which tracks up to twelve satellites.

A series of 78 transects were laid out along the survey tract for a total of 1,221 shovel tests. The majority of the shovel tests in the area produced Pantego soils consisting of a black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 1.2 feet over a gray (10YR5/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 1.7 feet.

Sites would be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

Analysis of collections would follow

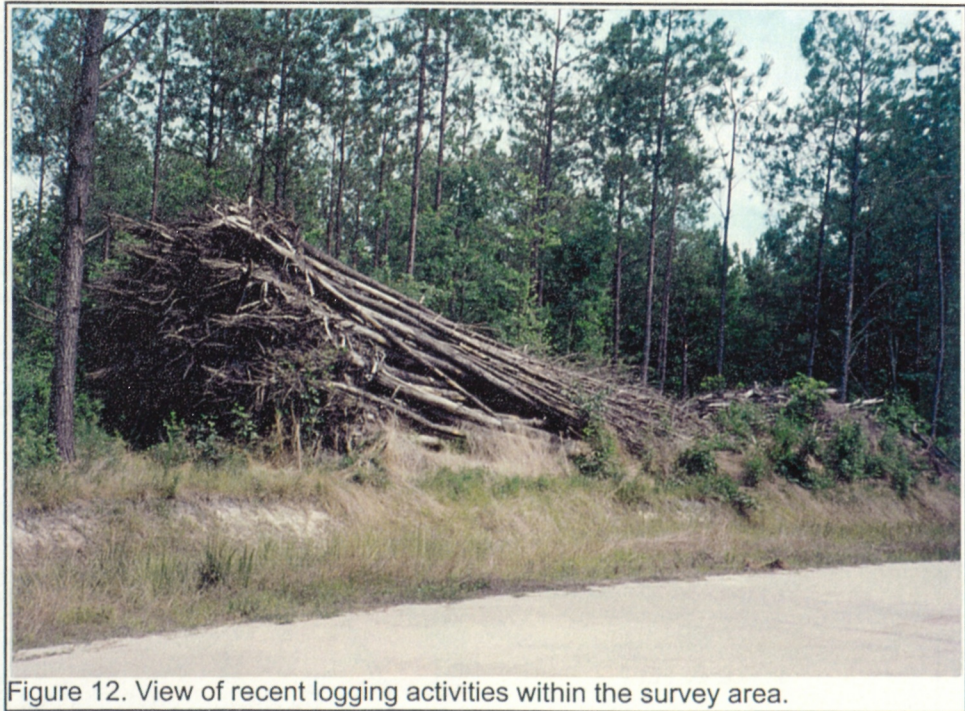


Figure 12. View of recent logging activities within the survey area.

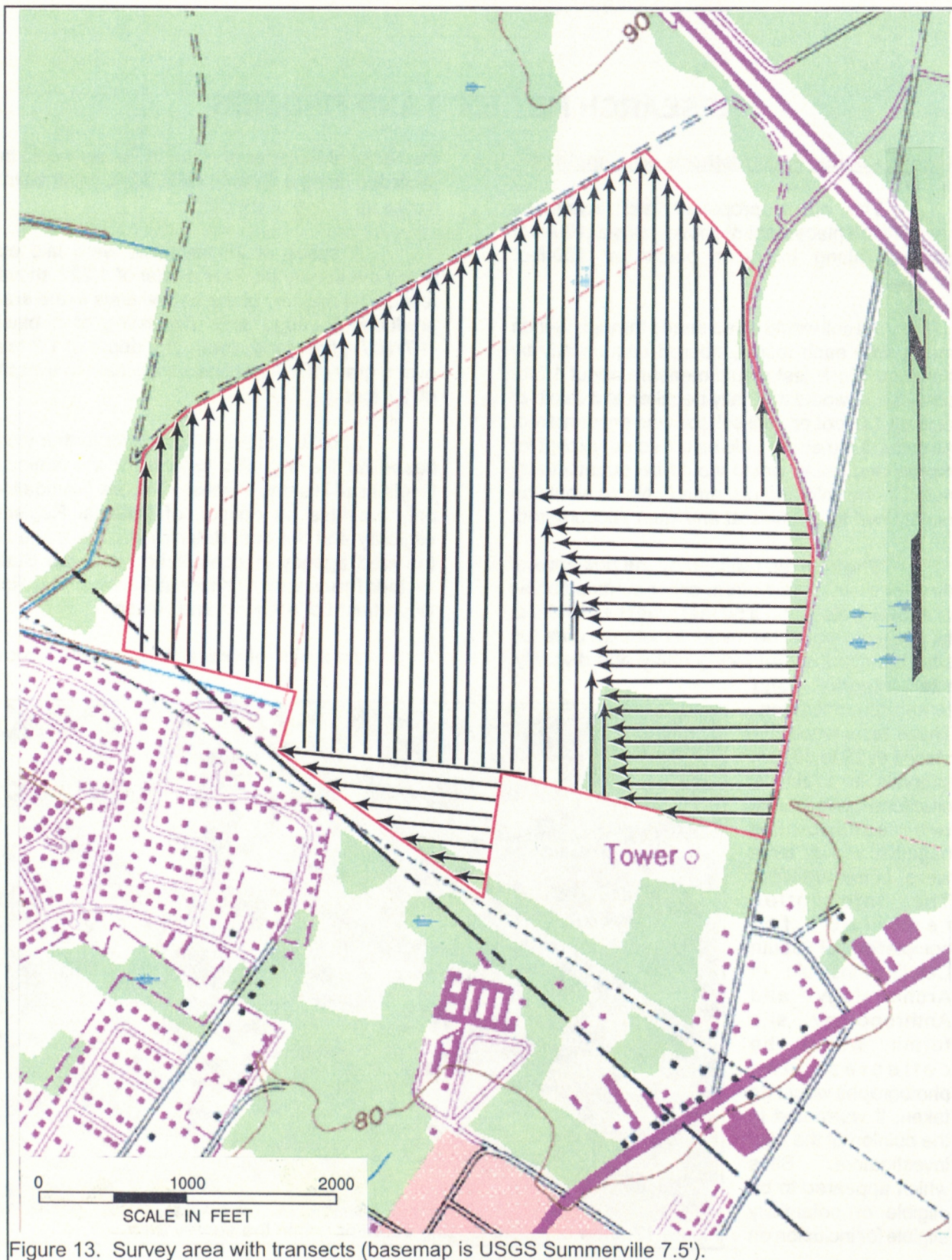


Figure 13. Survey area with transects (basemap is USGS Summerville 7.5').



Figure 14. View of crossroads within the survey area.

professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the 278.7 acre survey tract failed to identify any archaeological remains. This is most likely the result of intensive logging and distance to any sizeable creek or water source.

Architectural Survey and Findings

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which "have kept their integrity" (Anonymous n.d.:4) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified

during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

The survey failed to identify any additional structures beyond those recorded by Schneider (1989) and Davis and Fick (1989) and Davis and Fick (1997). As previously discussed, most of these structures failed to retain sufficient integrity to be considered eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The one site which was determined by the State Historic Preservation Office to be eligible for inclusion on the National Register, the

Dorchester County Hospital, cannot be seen from the survey area and is currently affected by extensive urban and suburban development including a subdivision and several modern shopping centers. It is unlikely that the proposed undertaking will have any additional effects on the historic structure.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 278.7 acres of land for the construction of a subdivision of single family homes, town homes, and multi-family homes. The project area is located in the western portion of Berkeley County, northeast the town of Summerville. This work, conducted for Centex Homes, examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist this organization in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no archaeological sites were uncovered.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 1.0 mile APE. No structures were found other than those previously recorded by Schneider (1989) and Davis and Fick (1997). Only one structure, the Dorchester County Hospital, has been found eligible. This structure will not be affected by the proposed undertaking.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

CONCLUSION

The first section of the report is a description of the area. It is a large area of land, mostly agricultural, with some residential areas. The area is located in the northern part of the county. The second section is a description of the cultural resources. There are several historic sites, including a plantation house, a church, and a school. There are also several archaeological sites, including a burial ground and a fort. The third section is a description of the historic and prehistoric sites. There are several historic sites, including a plantation house, a church, and a school. There are also several archaeological sites, including a burial ground and a fort. The fourth section is a description of the historic and prehistoric sites. There are several historic sites, including a plantation house, a church, and a school. There are also several archaeological sites, including a burial ground and a fort.

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